

Climate Change Impacts on Natural Resource Management in the Columbia Basin June 24, 2008

What can we learn from the past?

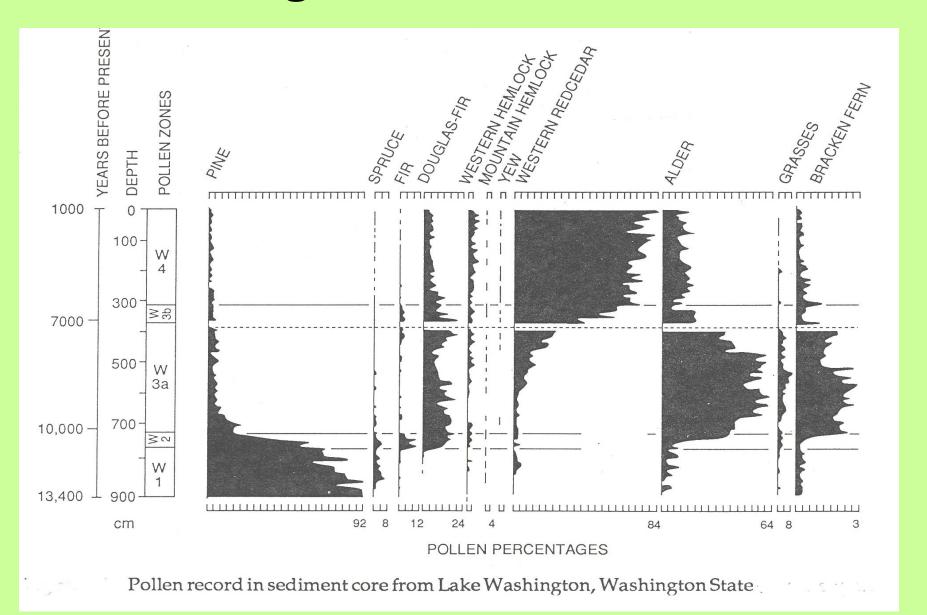
Climate is always changing

Abundance and distribution of tree species changes individually in response to climatic variability

Are warm periods of the past an analog for the future?

- 9000 5000 years BP
- 900 700 years BP

Forest vegetation varies over time



Climate change and tree regeneration

Key to regeneration is effects on limiting factors

- Snowpack
- Length of growing season
- Soil moisture in summer

Effects of a warmer climate will be site specific – precipitation patterns critical

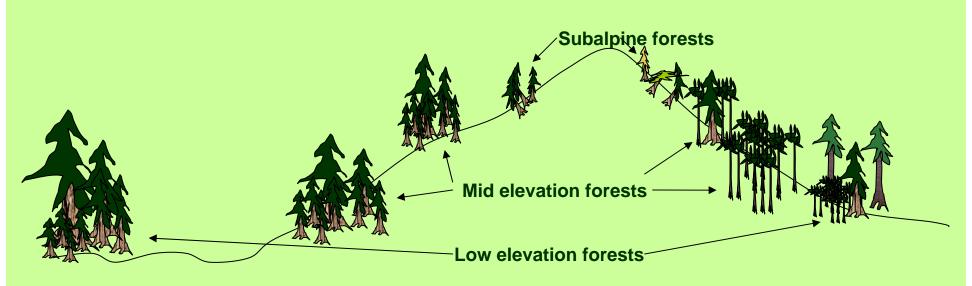
- In high-snow forests, regeneration will increase
- In high-rain forests, regeneration may increase
- In dry forests, regeneration will decrease

Climate change and tree growth

Subalpine forests: Less snowpack; longer, warmer growing seasons = **Growth increase**

Mid elevation forests: Warmer summers, less snow pack = Depends on precipitation

Low elevation forests: Warmer summers, less snow pack = Large growth decrease



Westside forests

Eastside forests

"If there is one word that describes the West, it is **aridity**."

Wallace Stegner

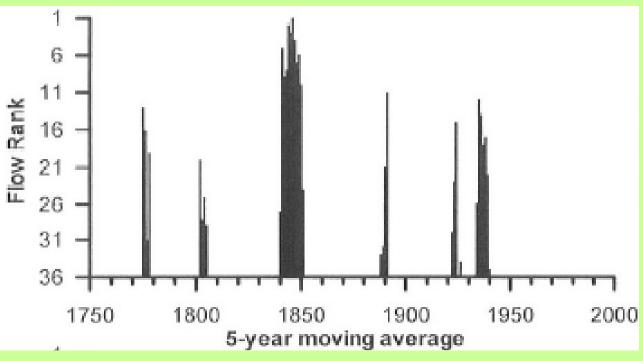
Where the Bluebird Sings to the Lemonade Springs





Jemez Mts., May 2004

Droughts were more common prior to 1950



Gedalof et al. (2004)

Streamflow for the Columbia River, reconstructed from tree-ring data



Disturbance drives ecosystem changes

Climate change

Warmer temperatures More severe droughts

Fire resets succession, temporal scale associated with fire rotation.

New fire regimes

More frequent fire More extreme events More area burned

The disturbance pathway is quicked

*

Mature trees buffer against effects of warmer climate, temporal scale associated

with species longevity.

Habitat changes

Broad-scale homogeneity
Truncated succession
Loss of forest cover
Loss of refugia
Fire-adapted species

Species responses

Fire-sensitive species

Annuals & weedy species

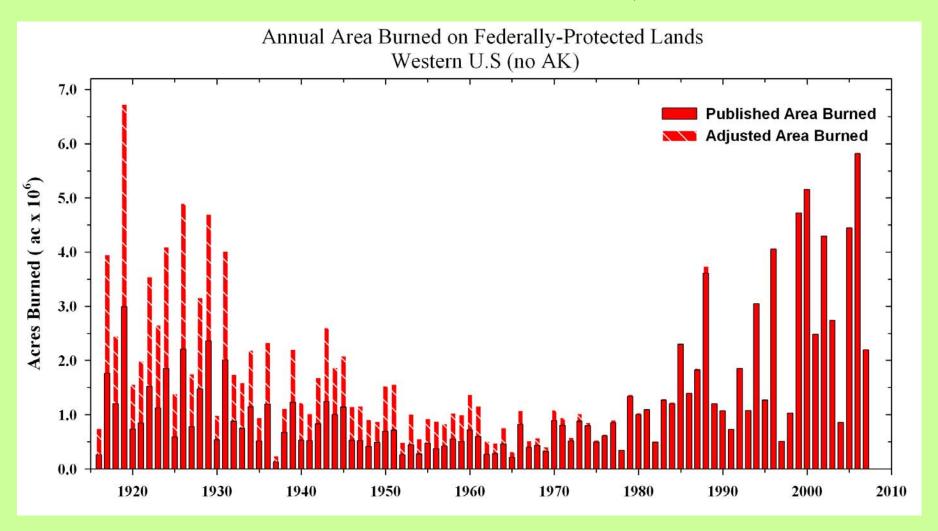
Specialists with restricted ranges

Deciduous and sprouting species

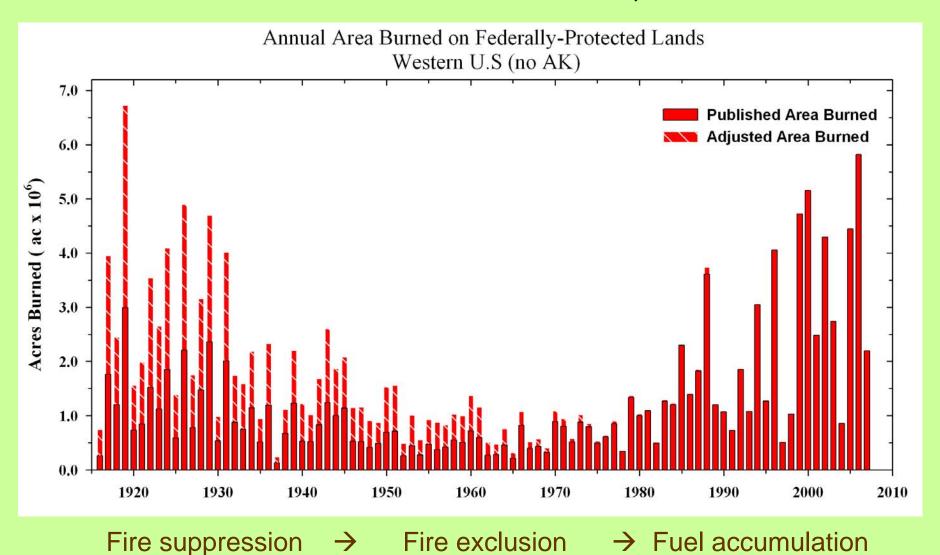
What causes large and severe fires?



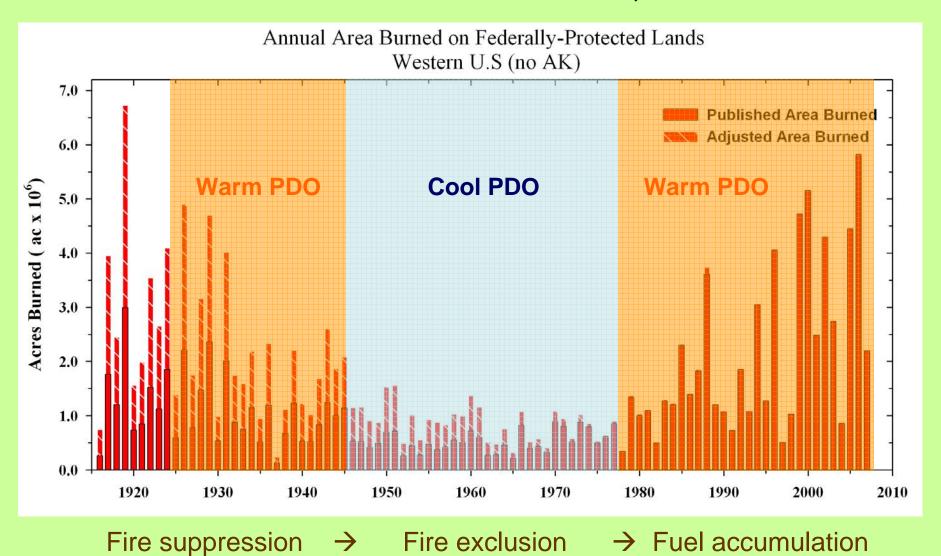
Area burned - Western U.S., 1916 - 2007



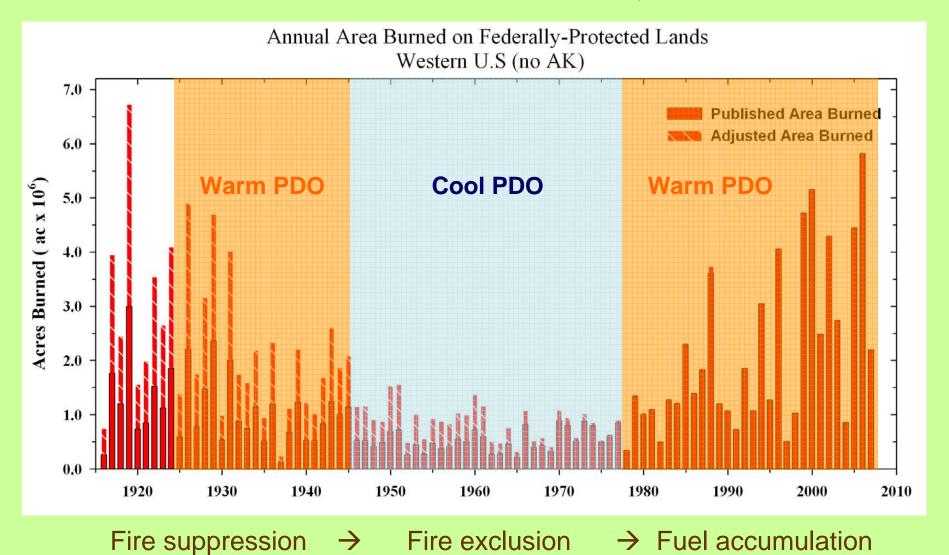
Area burned - Western U.S., 1916 - 2007



Area burned – Western U.S., 1916 - 2007



Area burned – Western U.S., 1916 - 2007



Much less fire

Lots of fire

Lots of fire

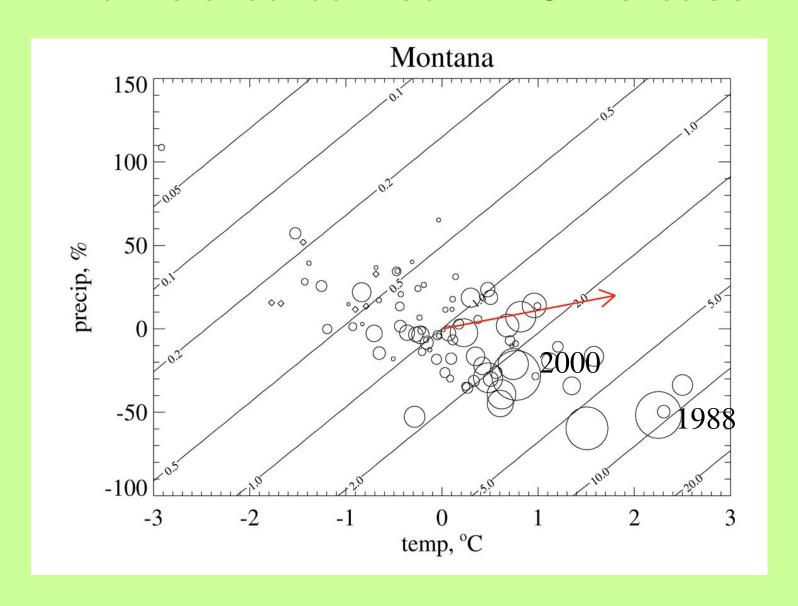
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Years with fire area > 200,000 acres

TOTAL	40 (74%)	14 (26%)
Washingtor	n 11	2
Oregon	14	5
Idaho	15	7
	Warm-phase PDO	Cool-phase PDO

National Forest data, 1916-2007

Wildfire area burned – 2°C increase



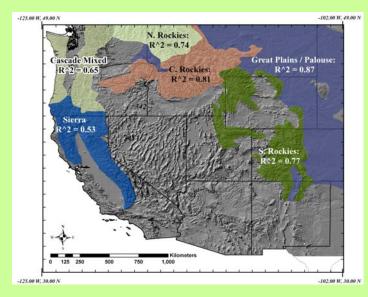
Future wildfire?

Analysis of wildfire data since 1916 for the 11 contiguous Western states shows that for a 2°C increase that <u>annual area</u> burned will be 2-3 times higher.

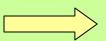
McKenzie et al. (2004), Conservation Biology 18:890-902

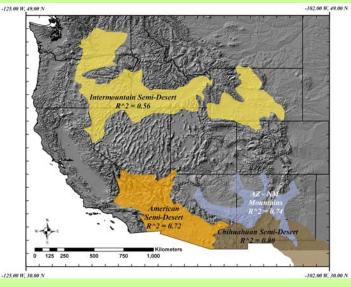
Climate, vegetation, and fuels

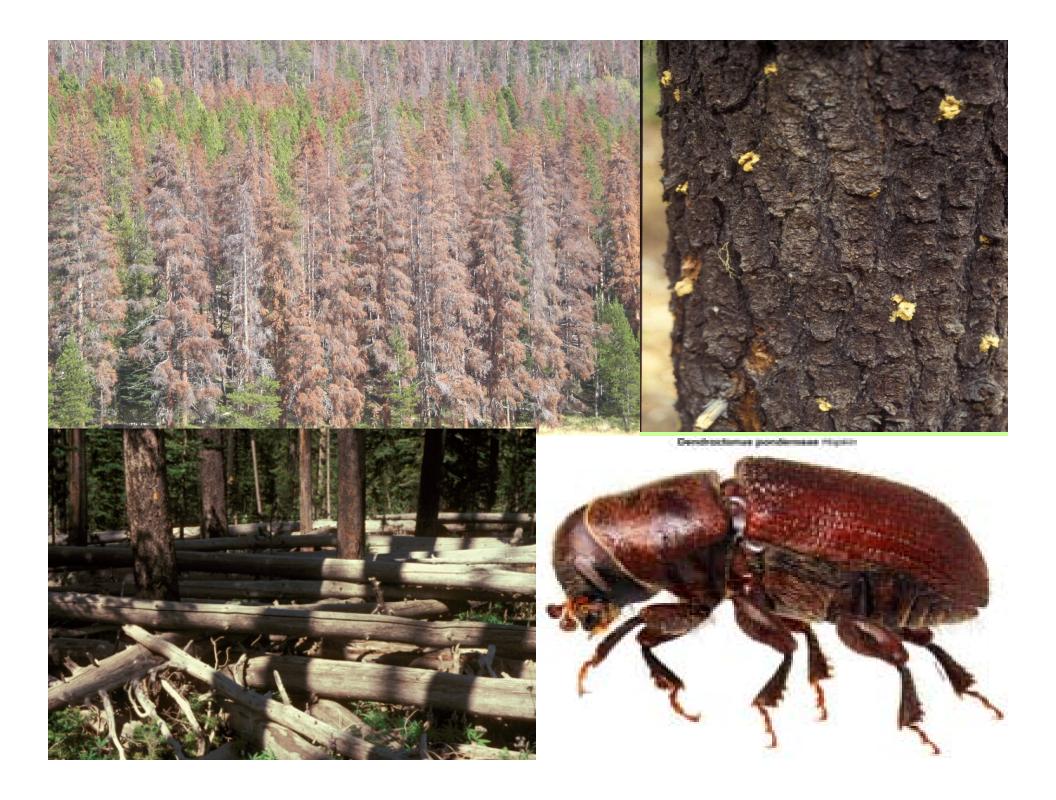
Fuel moisture (associated with current-year climate) drives extent and severity of fire



Fuel abundance and continuity (associated with previous-winter climate) drive extent and severity of fire

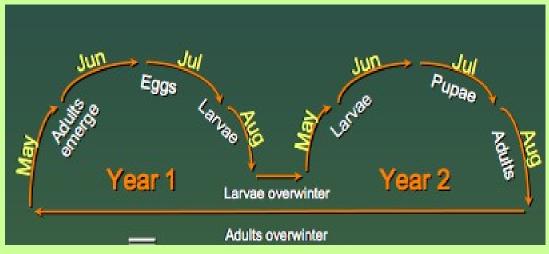






Effects of temperature increase on mountain pine beetle

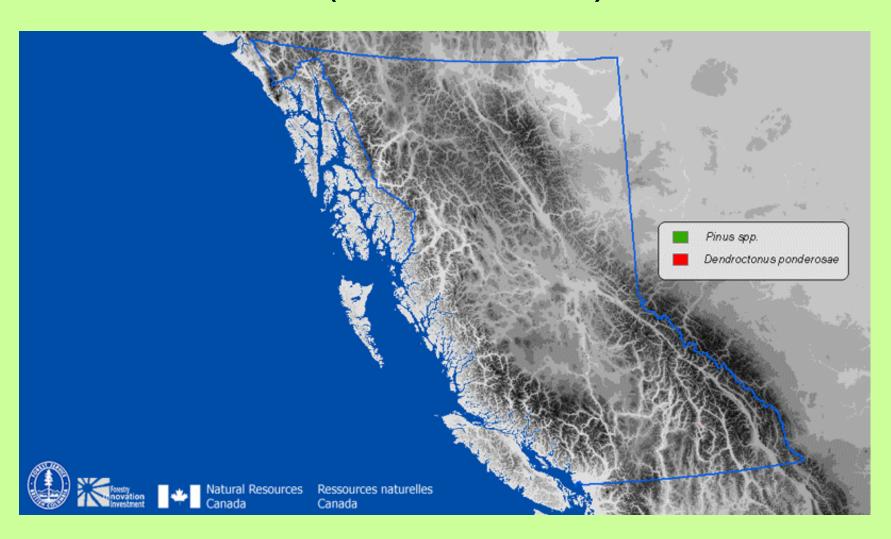
 Population synchronized by temperature (onset of spring)



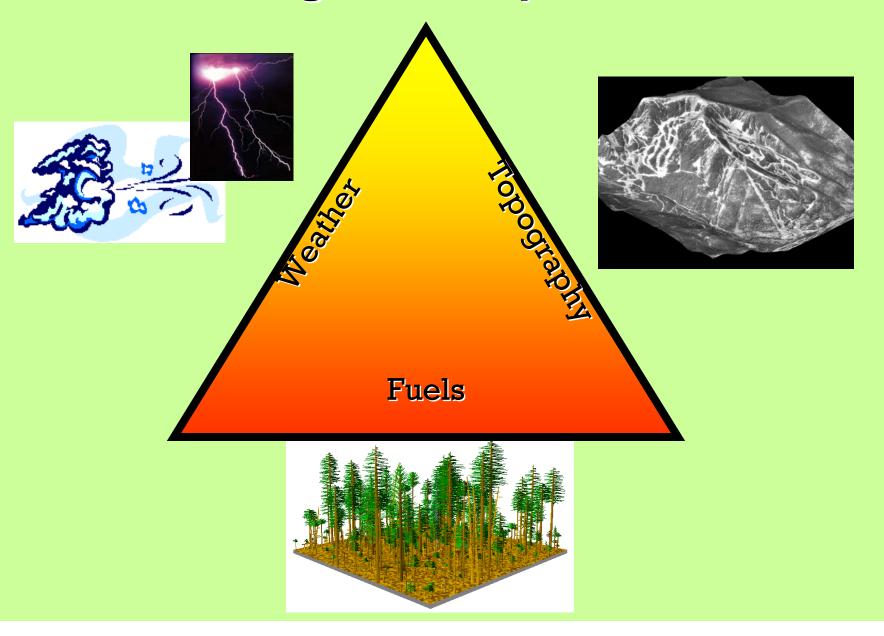
 Rate of generation turnover increases with temperature increase



Mountain Pine Beetle outbreaks (1959-2002)



Management Options

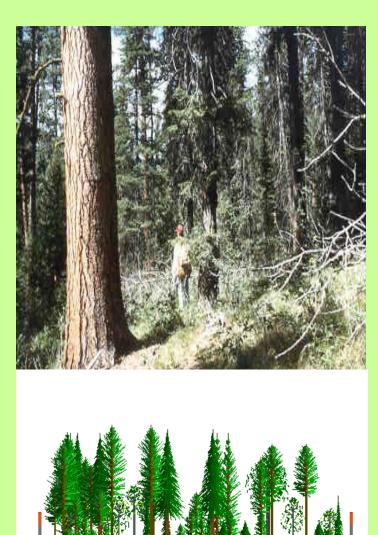




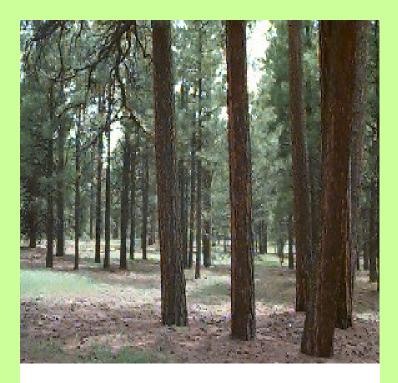


Managing fuels can be challenging!

Current conditions

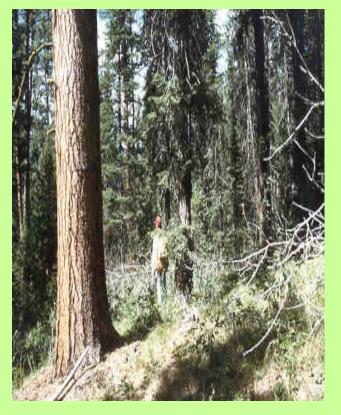


Target conditions





Thinning













Modifying forest structure and fuels: A no-regrets management strategy

Modify potential fire behavior

Reduce crown fire hazard

Increase resilience to increased fire frequency

Increase resistance to insect attack

Silviculture meets fire science

- Increase canopy base height
- Reduce canopy bulk density
- Reduce canopy continuity

AND reduce surface fuels

Increase canopy base height



Dense stand with understory

- - Canopy base height < 2 m



- Canopy base height > 6 m

Treated stand after thinning from below

Reduce canopy bulk density



Dense stand with understory

Canopy $BD > 0.30 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$

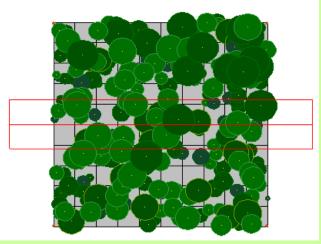


Canopy $BD < 0.10 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$

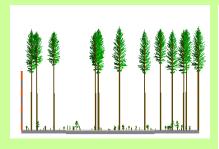
Treated stand after thinning from below

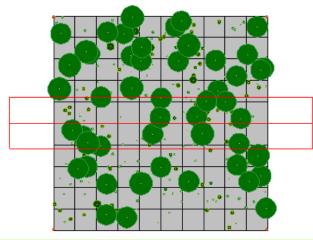
Reduce canopy continuity





Dense stand with understory



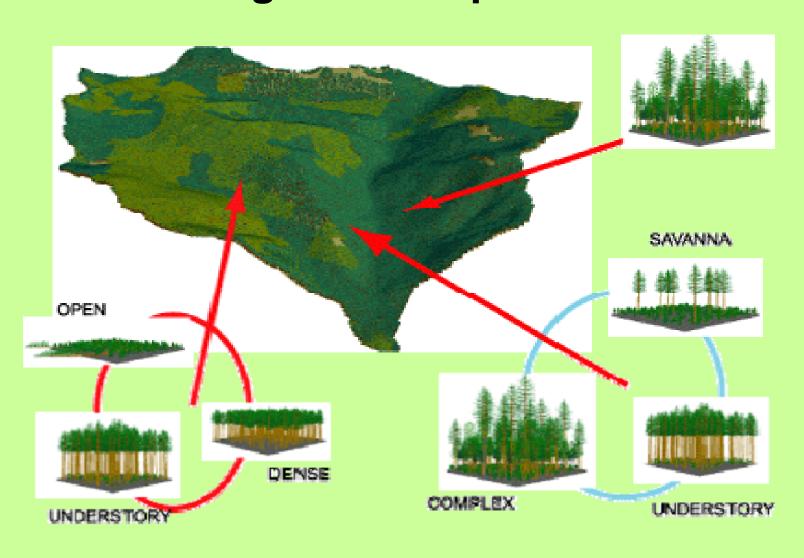


Treated stand after thinning from below

Surface fuels must be treated following removal of trees



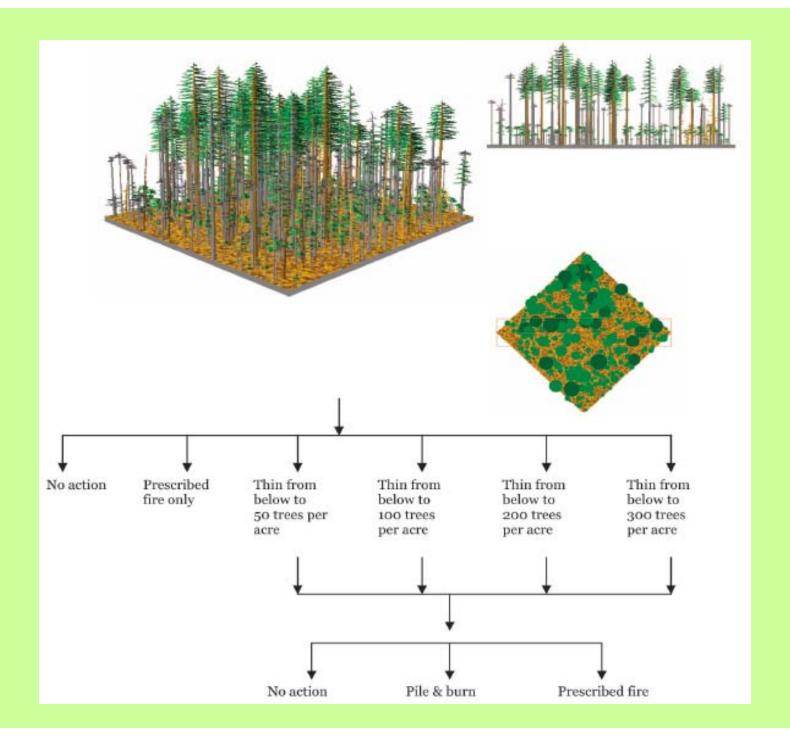
Effective fuel treatment programs must consider large landscapes



An example...



Figure 3. Initial stand conditions for a mixed conifer stand with ponderosa pine overstory on the Deschutes National Forest, Oregon. Stand structure and fuel attributes include quadratic mean diameter = 7.0 in., density = 947 tpa, basal area = 252 ft²/ac, canopy cover = 62%, canopy base height = 3 ft, canopy bulk density = 0.13 kg/m³, surface fuels less than 3 in. = 5 tn/ac, total surface fuels = 17 tn/ac. Different crown shapes represent different tree species.



The only treatment that minimizes crown fire

50-100 trees per acre



Thin from below to 50 trees/ac



Thin from below to 100 trees/ac

+ removal of surface fuels

Principles of fire resistant/resilient forests

Principle	Effect	Advantage
Reduce surface fuels	Reduces flame length	Control easier; less torching
Increase canopy base height	Requires longer flame length to begin torching	Less torching
Decrease crown density	Makes tree-to-tree crown fire less probable	Reduces crown fire potential
Keep big trees of resistant species	Less mortality for same fire intensity	Generally creates open structure with high crowns

Adapted from Agee and Skinner (2005)

A rational approach: Focus on the wildland-urban inerface

Benefits

Focus fuel treatment area
Protect high economic value
Reduce fire suppression cost
Respond to political concern
Create defensible zones
Reduce liability



